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ABSTRACT

A practicum addressed the problem of lack of fluency of learning-disabled and low-achieving students (N=24) retained in the first grade by using predictable books written in a natural manner emphasizing the children's natural language. Two evaluation procedures from the Reading Miscue Inventory were used to determine the degree to which students reduced miscues that altered the meaning of the text. Retelling of the story gave the reader an opportunity to enhance the construction of meaning. Strategies based upon a holistic view of the reading were implemented to provide students with the ability to sample, predict, and confirm as they made use of the knowledge, within a pragmatic context, of the syntactic, semantic, and graphophonic cueing systems, each interacting in order to process print. Results indicated decreased levels of miscues, taken individually and in sentence context, and a shift in attitude from a subskills or skills view of reading to a more holistic and personal view of reading. Fluency was increased as measured by the goals set for the study. (Two tables of data are included, and 47 references are attached. Appendixes include an analysis of miscues, book selection evaluation, and parental involvement forms.) (Author/MG)

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INCREASING READING FLUENCY FOR LEARNING-DISABLED AND REMEDIAL READERS

by

CAROL MOORE

A Practicum Report

submitted to the Faculty of the Center for the Advancement of Education at Nova University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Educational Specialist.

The abstract of this report may be placed in a National Database System for reference.

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Abstract

Increasing Reading Fluency for Learning Disabled and Remedial First Grade Retainees Through the Use of Predictable Books.
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Descriptors: Primary Education/ Elementary Education/ Reading Fluency/ Whole Language/ Miscue Analysis/ Predictable Books/ Children's Literature/ Learning Disabled/ Remedial Reading/

The problem of lack of fluency of learning-disabled and low-achieving students retained in the first grade was addressed by the implementation of a children's literature program, using predictable books, written in a natural manner emphasizing the children's natural language. Two evaluation procedures, from the Reading Miscue Inventory (Goodman, Watson and Burke, 1987), were used to determine the degree to which students reduced miscues that altered the meaning of the text. Retelling of the story gave the reader an opportunity to enhance the construction of meaning. Strategies based upon a holistic view of the reading were implemented to provide students with the ability to sample, predict, and confirm as they made use of the knowledge, within a pragmatic context, of the syntactic, semantic, and graphophonic cueing systems, each interacting in order to process print. The results indicated decreased levels of miscues, taken individually and in sentence context, and a shift in attitude from a subskills or skills view of reading to a more holistic and personal view of reading. Fluency was increased as measured by the goals set for the study. Appendices include an analysis of miscues, book selection evaluation, and parental involvement forms.

CHAPTER I

Purpose

The children in this study, 24 first grade retainees, were from a suburban and rural low- to middle-class school. Seventeen from the target group were minority children. Parents of eight of these children were first-generation Mexican immigrants who spoke very limited or no English in the home. Seven children in the study were Caucasian. In this second group, two of the children were classified as current migrant, and one was classified as a former migrant.

A review of the culmulative records revealed helpful information about the target group. Evidence of early academic failure was present for 23 of the target children. In the fall of their first year in the first grade 22 of the children scored below the 20th percentile on the Stanford Achievement Test. One child in the target group scored above the 20th percentile. One late-arriving student did not take the test. Eighteen of the children were enrolled in a Chapter 1 Basic reading class, and three others were enrolled in a migrant tutorial program. One child was in a pull-out SLD program. The remaining two received

no special services.

All children in the target group were referred for summer school, for additional reinforcement, at the end of their first year in first grade; but some did not attend the summer session. At the end of the first year all children in the target group were functioning at preprimer or primer level of a basal reading series, and all of the children also had failed to master 80 percent of the county's exit skills required for promotion to second grade.

During the spring of their first year in first grade all children were given a post Stanford Achievement Test. Those scoring below the 49th percentile were selected for further evaluation by their classroom teacher, for candidacy for Chapter 1 Basic remedial reading during the 1989-90 school year. Final selection was by a child making a composite score of 900 or above on the Selection Criteria Information Form (Appendix A:51). All children in the target group were enrolled in a Chapter 1 Basic reading pull-out program at the time of the study.

The classroom teacher and Chapter 1 staff worked in a collaborative environment in which teaching was based on a "holistic" or "whole language" approach to reading and writing instruction. The curriculum was literature-centered, and skills were reinforced in context. The current setting provided a basis

for using children's literature to increase fluency for learning-disabled and remedial readers.

Nonfluent reading is common among learning-disabled (LD) and remedial children. They seem to read word-by-word in a halting, choppy, and stumbling manner. Many remedial and LD children will hesitate for several seconds when they encounter an unfamiliar word in the text. Even when they are encouraged to guess at the word and continue reading to the end of the sentence, many of these children will not continue reading until the word is pronounced for them. This presents a problem for the remedial and LD children in that their processing of print is frequently so disconnected that construction of meaning is limited appreciably. These children frequently produce semantic (meaning) or syntactic (grammatical relations and functions of sentence parts) oral reading errors (miscues), resulting in reading that does not make sense. The term "miscue" was coined by Kenneth Goodman (1973) to describe any oral reading response that does not match the text. According to Goodman, the miscues follow a pattern and are not random. When good readers produce miscues they err on the side of meaning; poor readers tend to err on the side of phonics (Hammmond, 1982). Research has been conducted (Goodman and Burke, 1972; Gillet and Temple, 1982) with both qualitative and quantitative analysis of oral reading

errors. It has been shown that even the most fluent reader occasionally will miscue. However, a fluent reader's miscues are usually qualitatively good because they seldom contribute to a loss of meaning. With nonfluent readers, however, miscues generally involve a loss of meaning.

In this study a lack of fluency existed for the target group of 24 first grade retainees, who had been observed in various interactions with the text. Careful systematic observations (Appendix B:52) and taped reading and retelling of stories had revealed considerable information about the target group. When a new word was encountered in text, over one-half of the group used graphic-phonic cues (sound-symbol relationships) with varying degrees of consistency. It can be seen by these observations that while there was a tendency for this subgroup to have fewer syntactic and semantic errors, the frequency with which these specific errors occurred did inhibit fluency and understanding of the text. Although, the lack of fluency existed for all children in the target group, the difficulties ranged from severe to mild. All children in the target group produced miscues that disrupt and alter the meaning of the text, and these miscues were seldom self-corrected. Subsitutions, additions, and ommissions during the reading process often resulted in text that did not sound like language.

Fluent readers usually use all of the contextual clues available and do better at recoginizing words in context. Most of the children in the target group often performed better on words in isolation. When fluent readers are confronted with an unrecognizable word, they will usually guess at the word and continue reading, making an effort to predict, confirm, and construct meaning in the reading process. Reading samples (e.g. Richek, List, and Lerner, 1983; Ekwall, 1985) have shown repeatedly that most children in the target group would not risk making mistakes. Fluent readers are more concerned with process rather than product. Children in the target group generally have focused their efforts on getting the word right and not on deriving meaning from the text.

It is difficult to determine what part learning disabilities played in the reading problems of any of the children in the target group. The three children classified as learning-disabled were in the lowest quartile of the target group, and reading characteristics within this group were not distinctively different. One of the LD children tended to verbalize thoughts during the reading process. Although this child had been encouraged to skip the word or attempt to say it and continue on, it was not uncommon for the writer to hear "I don't know that word," or "I keep forgetting that word." When encountering an

unknown word in text the other two children would hesitate almost indefinately before any attempt was made to say the word or move on. Sometimes they would laboriously subvocalize the sound of a word in an effort to get it correct. All of these characteristics were evident in many of the children in the target group. Within the group the children who were more capable did show more patterns of qualitative miscues than did the three LD children or the other children with the highest remedial needs.

Correlates of reading problems are factors that are related to reading disability, but the precise relationship of cause and effect cannot be specified (Richek, et al., 1983). They also state that correlates of reading disability include ecological, emotional, physical, intelligence, and language factors; but correlates cannot be assumed to be the cause of a reading problem. Within the target group there were several correlates that may have had a degree of influence upon the children's nonfluency.

Other possible causes of nonfluent reading are the nature and methods of instruction. Allington (1978) showed that certain teacher practices, while well intended, may hamper fluency. Teachers interrupt remedial readers during oral reading far more often than they interrupt normal readers. When normal readers

make a miscue during reading, teachers tend to allow them to continue reading. In contrast, teachers frequently interrupt remedial readers to correct an appreciable number of their mistakes (Allington, 1978; Allington 1980a). When readers are interrupted, they lose the chance to check meaning and correct miscues on their own. Also, constant correction may be demoralizing to LD and remedial children.

Many remedial children frequently have a low self-image and lack motivation (possibly due to early education that placed emphasis upon drill on isolated skills and basal reading materials). According to Goodman (1988) "Basals have tended to isolate sounds, letters, and words from the (language) systems. And they have given little attention to the systems and how they relate in natural texts." In addition, Goodman notes that basal materials often produce distorted abstractions, loss of contextual meanings, and loss of grammatical function due to letter-sound relationships taught in isolation or words used out of context. This project sought to increase fluency for 24 first-grade retainees by using children's literature, specifically predictable books, written in a natural manner emphasizing the children's natural language.

Assessment of the target group was by an individually administered instrument for the detailed analysis of oral

reading, called the Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) (Goodman, Watson, and Burke, 1987). The RMI provided in-depth analysis of the oral reading of a single story or passage. With the RMI, the writer considered the child's miscues as evidence of interaction with the text, as well as the child's understanding of what was read and the ability to retell the story.

The objectives for the project were:

1. Over a ten-week period children in the target group would decrease their oral reading miscues that did not make sense, by 70 percent, as measured on the RMI, which would be given at the beginning and at the end of the ten-week period.
2. On a posttest of Oral Retelling Procedure (Goodman, Watson, and Burke, 1987) the students' respective scores on retelling the RMI passage would increase 20 points over their pretest scores on retelling the same passage.
3. The student's view of the reading process would mature as subjectively determined by the teacher's pretest and posttest evaluations of the The Reading Interview (Goodman, Watson, and Burke, 1987).
4. The students would rely on independent strategies when coming to words they did not know by (a) using the three language cues in an interrelated way; (b) not

immediately asking for help; and (c) skipping or guessing at words and then proceeding, applying knowledge to new situations. Results would be tallied and documented on a weekly basis.

5. The students would take books home daily. Independent home reading and parental involvement would be measured by parents' agreement to monitor reading, and by parents' written verification of the children's reading each signed-out book at home.
6. The students would develop a positive attitude toward reading as shown by the number of times they independently would choose to read books at times other than during their prescheduled 15 minutes of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). Results would be tallied and documented on a weekly basis.

CHAPTER II

Research and Solution Strategy

The term "learning disabilities" was coined in 1963 to describe children who in spite of normal or near-normal intelligence have a puzzling array of learning and behavior problems. A language-learning disability was viewed as something innately wrong with the child and not a manifestation of the potential inadequacies of a particular program, philosophy or practice (Goodman, 1986).

Professionals began to view learning disabilities as a product of deficient psychological processing. It was believed that problems in learning to read, as well as learning in other academic areas, stemmed from inherent psychological process problems, such as visual, auditory, and motor perception; children were identified with learning disabilities by assessing these psychological processes (Poplin, 1984). Many questions arose concerning the testing and training of children in these areas.

Hallahan and Kauffman (1988) note that there is very little research to support the notion that such training will

automatically lead to academic gains. Also, according to Poplin (1984), most of the tests used have very poor reliability and validity, and do not actually differentiate good learners from poor ones.

As remediation in the specific academic area emerged in the 1970's, behaviorists, gaining new prominence in the field of special education, used task analysis in an effort to simplify reading and writing by breaking them down into smaller subsets or subskills (Dudley-Marlin, 1986). Each subskill was practiced until a child could demonstrate mastery. Among professionals opposing this practice was Pearson (1985), who felt that a problem was created by having children practice skills in which they experience least success.

Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin (1988) state that behavioral approaches to written language instruction subject LD and remedial students to years of meaningless drill and practice, and additionally, focus on students' deficits. Poplin (1984) agrees with this statement and warns that the deficit model, with its constant reminder to students of their inadequacies, has had a devastating effect on the lives of many LD students.

In the 1980's a shift began away from a strictly behaviorist model to a cognitive strategy model. This model was based largely on the work of Torgenson (1979) and Meichenbausm (1980).

Whereas traditional behavior modification focuses on modifying behavior, the focus of cognitive training is on changing convert thoughts. Reid and Hresko (as cited by Poplin, 1984) state that the difference between the two groups (cognitive strategists and behaviorists) is that the cognitive strategists' primary concern is with "how" a person learns while the behaviorists' concern is for "what" a person learns. Cognitive training has gained widespread popularity as an intervention approach for many LD children (Palingsar, 1986; Paris, 1986; Wong, 1986). Supporters of the cognitive strategy model maintain that this model provides the child with specific learning strategies for solving problems; it places emphasis on the child as an active learner, rather than as a passive receptor.

Major criticism of the cognitive model is that it, too, is a deficit-driven model with learning broken down into categories and subcategories (Poplin, 1984).

> The tendency to categorize and subcategorize learning has led special educators time and again into the same trap. Thus, in the 1960's professionals in learning disabilities proposed divisions in the psychological processes of the mind (presumably related to distinct areas of the brain). In the 1970's, having noted the ineffectiveness of the psychological process model, we began to define categories, tasks, and subtasks that were observable in reading, math and even the socialization process. Worried about the failure of students to integrate them into meaningful reading, writing, math, and social behaviors across time, setting, and tasks, special educators once again sought to divide the learning process into "strategies." (Poplin, 1984).

Taylor (1989) states that in the last 20 years, educational researchers, anthropologists, sociolinguists, psycholinguists, and sociologists have been involved in research studies that focus on reading and writing. Taylor observes that their research has taught us much about the ways in which young children learn to read and write and about the ways in which we teach them; and that the interpretations that they have created move us from the reductionist thinking of "laboratory studies." She continues to state that even though there are many differences among these researchers, they and we are bound together by the belief that we must understand literacy development from the point of view of the child.

> Reading does not develop in predefined "stages." This myth has grown out of the reductionist research in which there is an artificial separation between reading and writing. Reading is dissected into predefined, linear, component parts that are divorced from the naturally ocurring dialectical structures that constitute puposeful literacy activities. To my knowledge, none of the research that has focused on the sociocognitive organization of the functions and uses of literacy supports the stage theory advocated by Chall. To the contrary, many well-documented research studies, when combined, provide compelling evidence to support the proposition that there is infinite variety in the patterns of young children's early literacy development (Taylor, 1989).

Numerous writers, opposed to the reductionist view of education, call for a holistic view. The holistic perspective, which is grounded in structuralist or constructivism philosophy,

emphasizes the role of the individuals in structuring or building meanings from their own experiences (Poplin, 1984).

Holistic approaches, because they take a developmental view of children's learning, reading, and writing problems, focus on children's strengths and not children's weaknesses or deficits; and by placing learning in meaningful contexts, holistic approaches encourage children to actively integrate what they are learning into what they have already learned (Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin, 1988). Because the role of the learner in constructing meaning is viewed as the single most critical relevant variable, the holistic model, more than any other, stresses that learning best occurs where there is active involvement in the learning task (Poplin, 1984).

Recently, the concept of "whole language" has received considerable attention among reading and language educators. Advocates of whole language believe that instruction in reading and writing should parallel the way speaking and listening are naturally developed by children. The philosophical stance was formulated from research on how children learn (Cullinan, 1989), and affirmed that language should be whole, meaningful, and relevant to the learners. The psychology of learning teaches us that we learn from whole to parts. This is why whole-language teachers only deal with language parts - letters, sounds,

phrases, and sentences in context of whole real language. Although the theoretical base for whole language is closely related to key ideas of language experience and psycholinguistics, whole language represents a new paradigm (Pickering, 1989).

> Specific indicators of whole language instruction have been identified and can be used in developing and evaluating teaching methods. The research base for whole language is growing, and studies indicate that process approaches such as whole language increase students' reading and writing abilities (Pickering, 1989).

While its terminology and conceptual framework limits research on whole language, studies related to literacy learning are relevant to whole language and have added to the knowledge base for holistic teaching of reading and writing to overall language development (Pickering, 1989).

The whole language movement has given renewed attention to individualized reading, redefining, and refining the process which primarily uses "real books" to foster literacy (Tunnell and Jacobs, 1989). Literature is essential in any language-arts program because it models the richest language, sparks the imagination of the readers, introduces students to descriptive language and a sense of story, and intrinsically motivates them to read and write (Heard-Taylor, 1987).

Consistent with the holistic philosophy is a current trend

toward viewing the child as learning-disabled in terms of similarities with children who are not classified as learning-disabled. Hallahan and Kauffman (1988) state that until recently, professionals tended to focus on the differences between exceptional and nonexceptional children, almost to the exclusion of the ways in which all children are alike. However, the authors further state that today more attention is being given to what exceptional and nonexceptional children have in common - to similarities in their characteristics, needs, and ways of learning. Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin (1988) emphasize increasing evidence that current assessment practices fail to discriminate many LD students from other underachievers, especially students who are placed in remedial classes. They state that, additionally, studies have shown considerable overlap in the characteristics of LD students and underachievers.

From the above survey of literature, the writer concludes that differences exist among some of the children classified as learning-disabled and those who qualify for remedial reading programs, as well as those considered to be "average learners," but that there are many similarities among such groups.

Reasons for lack of fluency may be related to several interrelated sources. Of major concern is the practice of teaching skills or subskills in isolation; this practice stresses

product and not process. Furthermore, research (Collins, 1982; Allington, 1980b) indicates that less proficient readers are subjected to this type of instruction more frequently than more capable readers.

Collins (1982) notes differences in a careful analysis of good and poor first-grade readers and argues that these differences stem from instructional behaviors. The author explains that teachers consistently emphasize decoding and accuracy with less fluent readers. This emphasis is less prominent in lessons with good readers as they progress from word recognition to phrase and sentence reading.

Allington (1983) explains that a lack of fluency is mistakenly viewed as simply symptomatic of poor reading, suggesting that the poor reader is inefficient in word recognition or analysis. This interpretation, commonly accepted by teachers, unfortunately often leads to more instruction in letters, sounds, or words in isolation, in the mistaken belief that more attention to this area will result in improved reading. McClure (1985) states that a strictly phonetic approach that directs attention to individual letters, sounds and words leads to slow, hesitant reading habits, because children do not hear themselves reading fluently and so are unable to develop an awareness of the flow of meaning that characterizes "real"

reading. Similarily, many learning-disabled children have difficulty transferring their knowledge of rules to decipher unknown words (McClure, 1985).

Guthrie (1982) notes that children often get a mistaken view of what reading is when they spend all their time focusing on isolated elements of print that do not seem to connect to any discernible meaning. If readers focus too heavily on individual letter/sound relationships or on the recognition of individual words, they cannot at the same time focus on the construction of meaning. Children should never be asked to do phonic drills in which their attention is focused on small and abstract units of language because they cannot rely on past experience and information; this is also inconsistent with the way in which language is used and learned in real situations (Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin, 1988).

Chang and Watson state:

> Prediction is a powerful part of any reading act. With prediction, a reader clarifies what has been read, forms expectations of what may happen next, and then confirms or rejects the reader's expectations of the text. Prediction is essential in helping the reader comprehend the text. As such, the act of prediction has been considered a type of reading strategy that is worthy of thoughtful consideration and implementation. (Chang and Watson, 1988)

Smith (1979) notes the importance that prediction plays in reading comprehension, and describes prediction as "taking a

chance by betting on the most likely alternative." Cochrane, O., et al. (1985), and Tompkins and Webeler (1983) describe a three-step cycle which takes place in the process of reading:

(1) SAMPLING occurs when children choose the most useful syntactic, semantic and graphophonic information from the text in order to make a prediction. By this process the most unlikely alternatives are excluded.

(2) PREDICTING occurs when children hypothesize the most probable meaning of the text based on the information they selected during sampling.

(3) CONFIRMING occurs when children ask themselves if their hypotheses made sense based on the feedback they received from the text. This asking allows them to confirm or reject their hypotheses.

As the three-step cycle is repeated, children select the most significant cues from the text and eliminate the unlikely possibilities prior to formulating their predictions. Goodman, as cited by Bridge (1979), notes that among the most important characteristics of early reading material may well be predictability. Bridge (1979) states that the key to making

reading easier for the beginning reader lies in finding materials for initial reading instruction that are easy and meaningful, and thus predictable.

Books are predictable when they enable students to quickly and easily predict what the author is going to say and how the author is going to say it, based upon their knowledge of the world (Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin, 1988). They are an excellent source for reading with remedial or learning-disabled children (Hollingsworth and Reutzel, 1988). Ford and Ohlausen (1988) suggested that reading and writing skills could be fostered among disabled readers in both reading clinics and regular classrooms by using patterned books and stories.

There are several characteristics of predictable books that contribute to an increase in reading fluency. Rhythmical, repetitive, and cumulative patterns in which the author repeats words, phrases, or themes in a pattern that can be discerned after only a few pages, has been shown to be effective with learning-disabled children (McClure, 1984). With many repetitions the words become embedded in the student's mind (Goodman, 1986). Repetition may involve the reading of pattern stories over again because of the rhythm of the language and/or the appeal of the story (Kleiuss, 1988). Children can use the repetitive pattern to anticipate what is going to come next

(Newman, 1988).

Predictable books are about things with which children are familiar. Familiarity may arise from hearing or reading the text or a version of it repeatedly, or from experiencing it in other forms, such as song, oral story, or poem (Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin, 1988). Eric Carle's (1969) The Very Hungry Caterpillar provides a familiar pattern by combining repetition with two familiar sequences, the days of the week and numbers. Another characteristic of predictable books is that they provide a good match between the text and illustrations. Thus children are able to use the pictures to help figure out what the text will likely say (Jacobs, 1989). A good match between text content and the reader's prior experiences render the books highly predictable, and also encourage children to use their knowledge of the world and of language in responding to books (Rhodes, 1981; Rhodes and Dudley-Marlin, 1988).

These characteristics make predictable books very different from typical first grade instructional material because the language flows naturally, and the vocabulary and content reflect what children know about their world and their language (Bridge, 1979; Rhodes, 1981). Also, children can use this knowledge to develop word recognition strategies while reading, rather than before.

Bridge, Winograd, and Haley (1983) report a study with slower first graders in an experimental and control group and show that sight words are better learned in the context of repetitive "predictable books" and Language Experience Approach (LEA) charts than from stilted preprimers.

Chang and Watson (1988) investigated the effects of using prediction strategies and predictable materials in teaching ethnic Chinese children in a Chinese/English bilingual classroom, to read in Chinese. The study was conducted in two phases. Findings of the research support the sociolinguistic ways for readers of languages such as English and Chinese.

Yukish (1988) describes the Reading Recovery program, developed in New Zealand to help at-risk first-grade children "recover" 90 percent of average first-grade reading and writing skills after 12 to 18 weeks of intensive instruction. Based on extensive research into the way good readers learned to read effectively, the Reading Recovery program blends traditional reading instruction with whole language techniques. The program is currently being implemented in many districts in the United States.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The 24 subjects participated in a Chapter 1 pull-out program for 40 minutes each day for 10 weeks. While they were in their respective classrooms the members of this target group received instruction in a holistic environment in all areas of the curriculum. Three children in the target group also attended an SLD class for one hour each day.

At the beginning and at the end of the ten-week period the subjects were individually evaluated by the writer. For the purpose of the study, each child's complete oral reading and retelling of "The Man Who Kept House" (Appendix C: 53) from RMI became an important part of the data collected. Each child's uncorrected miscues (Ms) (observed responses that did not match the text) were examined separately. At the same time the child's language was evaluated for miscues made in context. It also examined how the reader used the language cueing systems and reading strategies while reading orally. A taped recording of the student's reading of the story was used to facilitate accuracy in marking miscues on the transcript. Miscues (substitutions, ommissions, including uncorrected partials and

insertions) were then selected for numbering and coding on Miscue Analysis Procedure I Coding Form (Appendix D:58).

To determine whether or not Objective I was met, the following formulae were used:

beginning Ms - final Ms - reduction in Ms

reduction in Ms divided by beginning Ms X 100
= reduction in Ms as a percent
of beginning Ms

The writer further analyzed the data by using Procedure II Coding Form (Appendix E:59) and Procedure II Reader Profile (Appendix F: 60). The major focus of attention for analysis in Procedure II is the sentence within the entire context of the text. All sentences were coded, whether they included miscues or not. In this way the writer determined the influence of miscues on the total text and not just on the sentences that included miscues. Each selection of the Coding Form, Language Sense and Word Substitution in Context (Appendix E:59) helped the writer to examine miscues in different ways and at different linguistic levels. The focus of analysis of the Language Sense section was upon the reader's ability to construct meaning. It examined the

degree to which the reader produced sentences that made sense and sounded like language. It also evaluated the proficiency with which the child used strategies involving sampling, predicting, confirming, and constructing meaning.

To determine the syntactic, semantic, and degree of meaning change three questions were used in the evaluation of each sentence.

1. Question 1 (Syntactic Acceptability). Is the sentence syntactically acceptable in the context of the entire text?

   Y - The sentence, as finally produced by the reader, is syntactically acceptable.

   N - The sentence, as finally produced by the reader, is not syntactically acceptable (partial acceptability is not considered in this procedure).

2. Question 2 (Semantic Acceptability). Is the sentence semantically acceptable within the context of the entire text? (Question 2 cannot be coded Y if Question 1 has been coded N.)

   Y - The sentence, as finally produced by the reader, is semantically acceptable.

   N - The sentence, as finally produced by the reader, is not semantically acceptable (partial acceptability

is not considered in this procedure).

3. Question 3 (Meaning Change). Does the sentence, as finally produced by the reader, change the meaning of the selection? (Question 3 is coded only if Questions 1 and 2 are coded Y).

   N - There is no change in the meaning of the selection.

   P - There is inconsistency, loss, or change of a minor idea, incident, character, fact,sequence, or concept in the selection.

   Y - There is inconsistency, loss, or change of a major idea, incident, character, fact,sequence, or concept in the selection.

The desired outcome with Procedure II was either an increase in the number of YYNs or a decrease in the number of sentences read that made a change in meaning.

An oral retelling was used as part of the miscue analysis. Responding to the story by retelling it gave the students an opportunity to integrate their interpretations of the author's messages into their own words, and thus enhance the construction of meaning. The Retelling Guide (Appendix G:61) ensured appropriate questioning during the student's retelling. Thus, it was easier to monitor the reader's response as the story was read and retold. However, the writer recognized the importance of

flexibility in the retelling because of the variety of ways in which readers present their understanding of the text. At no time were the words in the Retelling Guide considered the only appropriate responses to events, themes, or generalizations. To score the retelling of the story, 40 points were assigned for character analysis (20 points for naming the three characters, and 20 points for describing them). Six major events were listed; this made a possible total of 60 points for events. In the complete story, 100 points were designated. To determine point increase the pretest score was subtracted from the posttest score.

The Reading Interview from RMI (Appendix H:62) was given orally to each child at the beginning and at the end of the ten-week period. Teachers categorized the child's beliefs about reading according to three different reading models: (a) subskills, (b) skills model, and (c) holistic model, by comparing responses on a pretest and posttest. Because what teachers and students believe about the reading process has a strong influence on how reading is taught and learned, both the Reading Interview and the student's miscue analysis provided important information for the reader's profile. When the student's view of reading reflected a skills or subskills view of reading, teachers adapted instruction to take into consideration ways of helping the child

view reading in a more holistic and personal way.

On-going evaluation was conducted, in part, by three teacher assistants who had been trained to use predictable materials. These assistants also had been trained to observe a child's oral reading to determine if the child was using the language cueing systems interactively. Throughout the rest of this paper, "teacher" shall denote either the writer or one of these assistants. Subjects were divided into four groups with six children in each group. Each teacher taught at least one group; the writer taught exactly one group.

To determine the degree to which children relied on independent strategies and constructed meaning while reading, a quick evaluation of the child's reading was provided by using the processes of Procedure IV from RMI (Appendix I:64). This is an informal procedure that teachers frequently used during individual reading conferences. Procedure IV focuses on the most important aspect of miscue analysis - semantic acceptability and correction. The teachers listened to students read and kept a tally of the coded sentences by responding to the question, "Does the sentence make sense within the entire context of the selection?" When the teacher and student had an individual conference the reading selection was usually something that the student had chosen to read for pleasure. The teacher asked the

students to read from the point in the story at which they had stopped reading before the conference. This provided the proper background, but assured the reading of new material.

On the Conference Form the teachers noted a comprehension score for each selection. As part of the reading conference, the teachers discussed the child's reading strategies, strengths, or weaknesses that related to the reading process. Comments and anecdotes collected during the conference were also listed on the form.

In the shared-reading process, children shared predictable literature selections containing repeated patterns, rhyme, rhythm, familiar sequences, or cummulative patterns. The selections were from books which had "big book" enlargements made commercially or by one or more of the teachers. Each teacher discussed the book, author, and illustrator, and then read the book in its entirety. Thus, each child heard a model of fluent reading, and this enabled the child to build knowledge of the text through hearing it read.

Assisted reading (Lap Method, or Neurological Method) was used as a basic technique during the shared reading. After the text had been read through by the teacher, a second reading was effected during which each child read along. Assisted reading was accomplished also, by each child's reading along with a

prerecorded tape of a book. Headphones were used to reduce distractions.

Another technique, repeated reading, was used in concert with assisted reading to increase reading fluency. As each student approximated a fluent-assisted reading of the text, the teacher asked the student to read it alone. If the child faltered at some point in the text, the teacher briefly read along again, beginning with the phrase or sentence in which the child first encountered the difficulty. Again, the teacher provided a model of rereading that preserved the linguistic nature of the text.

Children were placed as groups of two (dyads) or of three (triads); each group sat together and read aloud from the same book. Grouping changed periodically. During the course of a week, children read the whole text in unison, first with the teacher's help, and then without it. At each read-along session, one or more of the following procedures was implemented:

(1) refrain - the teacher read the story and children read the refrain;

(2) repeating - the teacher read the story and the children repeated the story in unison with the teacher and then without the teacher's help;

(3) cloze - the teacher read most of each sentence and then paused for the children to fill in the missing words.

(4) children read - the children read single pages or the whole book in unison, with a partner or individually;

(5) independent reading - the children chose familiar selections to read independently.

For comprehension, the teacher and children discussed the story. The teacher asked what the story was about and if the children liked or disliked it. The teacher also asked the children to retell what happened in their own words.

Throughout the ten-week period children participated in various supportive activities that allowed them to interpret the predictable selections more fully. This included dramatization, puppetry, and role playing. The children had many opportunities for writing involvement, such as book making, writing a letter to a story character, and writing new sentences based on a familiar pattern in a story. Problem-solving activities included brainstorming, sorting, classifying, comparing/contrasting, and decision making.

An important part of the program was parental involvement. Parents were invited to an orientation meeting prior to the ten-week program. Teachers explained the purposes of the program. Parents completed a brief form (Appendix J: 65) denoting their child's present level of interest and reading behavior. Parents also signed the form stating that one of them

or another designated person would listen to the child read a book every day at home, and would along with the child, be responsible for returning the books which the child checked out daily from the Chapter I program. During the ten-week program parents were encouraged to visit the school and/or communicate by phone or writing whenever they felt a need. At the end of the implementation period, parents completed an evaluation form (Appendix K: 67) in order to help the teachers determine the effectiveness of parental involvement.

The child's attitude toward reading was analyzed by observing and documenting (Figure 1) the number of times the children chose to read rather than do another activity, and when they voluntarily checked out books from the library or the Chapter I program. Teachers also noted special interests that the child had in books during a one-on-one reading conference.

CHAPTER IV

Results

The results of miscue analysis will be presented in two sections. Individual scores on the oral reading and retelling of "The Man Who Kept House" are reported in Tables I and II.

For the purpose of obtaining the number of miscues on each child's pretest and posttest, miscues that included substitutions, ommisions, insertions, and intonation shifts that changed the syntax or meaning of the text, were counted and placed in the appropriate column (Appendix D: 58). One child's miscues involved words or phrases in such a way that it was not always possible to determine a word-for-word relationship. By listening to the child's taped reading several times and also by obtaining a second observer, the writer attempted to relate the observed response to the expected response on a word-for-word level. Objective I sought to determine if a 70% decrease in miscues occurred from the pretest to the posttest. An examination of the data in Table I, Section I, shows that only six children met this objective, while an additional eleven children decreased their miscues by 60% or more. Seven of the children decreased miscues ranging from 17% to 50%.

There are two variables that greatly affected the outcome, and explain the seeminly low percentage of reductions in miscues. First, implementation of the project began several months after the 24 students were enrolled in the second year of first grade. During the 1990-91 school year these children were in an entirely Whole-Language environment. Predictable books and related activities were also a part of their entire curriculum during the preimplementation period. Thus, when the pretest was given, many of the students made a relatively small number of miscues. Nine children made less than 100 miscues on the pretest oral reading passage, and two of these children made only 26 miscues while reading the entire text. Moreover, on the pretest many of these children demonstrated a moderate to high level of fluency which was not apparent with any of the children in the target group at the beginning of the school year.

The second variable which greatly affected the outcome was the fact that the oral reading passage, originally adapted from a third grade text, was too difficult for some of the children. This was evident from their total performance on both the pretest and posttest.

In a further analysis of the data, the writer evaluated the reader's ability to construct meaning. Attention for analysis here (Table I, Section II) was on the sentence within the context

Table I
Miscue Analysis

	Section I (730 Words)				Section II (68 sentences)						
Student No.	Pretest Miscue Raw Score	Posttest Miscue Raw Score	Raw Score Difference	Decrease as % of Pre Test Miscue	Pretest YNN	Pretest YYY,YYP, NY,YN	Posttest YNN	Posttest YYN, YYP, NY, YN	Raw Score Difference	Reduction as % of Post as % YYY,YYP,NY,YN	Increase of No. of sentences (68)
1	26	9	17	65	63	5	67	1	4	80	99
2	26	10	16	62	63	5	67	1	4	80	99
3	28	11	17	61	64	4	67	1	3	75	99
4	33	7	26	79	60	8	67	1	7	88	99
5	36	14	22	61	60	8	66	2	6	75	97
6	40	17	32	65	60	8	66	2	6	75	97
7	61	13	48	79	59	9	67	1	8	89	99
*8	150	47	103	69	39	29	63	5	24	83	93
9	180	54	126	70	29	39	63	5	34	84	93
10	93	37	56	60	36	32	61	7	25	78	90
*11	151	33	118	78	31	37	63	5	32	86	93
12	227	83	144	63	28	40	60	8	32	80	88
*13	277	84	193	70	29	39	59	9	30	77	87
14	97	35	62	64	43	25	63	5	20	80	93
15	126	44	82	65	30	38	63	5	33	87	93
15	126	44	82	65	30	38	63	5	33	87	93
16	201	56	145	72	33	35	61	7	28	80	90
17	166	91	75	45	27	41	59	9	32	78	87
18	288	149	149	50	21	47	46	22	25	53	68
19	147	58	89	61	33	35	58	10	25	71	85
20	217	118	99	46	23	45	48	20	25	56	71
21	105	68	37	35	36	32	58	10	22	69	85
22	297	193	104	35	20	48	37	31	17	35	54
23	415	256	159	38	8	60	17	51	9	15	25
24	521	430	91	17	6	62	11	57	5	8	16

* In SLD Program

Table II

Analysis of Retelling

Student No.	Pretest Raw Score	Posttest Raw Score	Raw Score Increase
1	75	96	21
2	78	92	14
3	75	93	18
4	77	94	17
5	70	95	25
6	68	91	23
7	66	95	29
*8	65	88	23
9	52	90	38
*10	62	92	30
11	68	86	18
12	64	88	24
13	69	84	15
14	55	86	31
15	50	84	34
*16	50	82	32
17	62	86	24
18	58	78	20
19	48	70	22
20	45	65	20
21	24	46	22
22	46	75	29
23	20	35	15
24	18	27	9

* In SLD Program

of the entire text, in which a picture of the influence of miscues on the total story was examined. The coding used in Table I is from the RMI. The desired outcome for this procedure was either an increase in the number of sentences read that did not make a change in meaning of the story, or a decrease in the number of sentences read that made a change in meaning. Twenty-two children had higher percentages of reduction in sentences that involved a meaning change, compared to their percentages of decrease on individual miscues, as examined in Section I. These percentages of reduction in sentences with meaning change are percentages of the pretest sentences with meaning change. The findings suggest that the majority of children in the target group had an ability to construct meaning, although several of them made an appreciable number of miscues. Based on the number of YYNs on the pretest and posttest, a percentage was computed to determine the child's ability to use the language cueing system interactively and derive meaning from the text. Increase as a percent of total number of sentences in the story (68) is shown for each child in the last column of Table I, Section II. This comprehension score constitutes a moderate to high score for most of the subjects in the target group.

To determine whether or not the retelling of "The Man Who

Kept House" showed at least a 20 point raw-score point increase, the pretest score was subtracted from the posttest score. The data are shown in Table II. Some of the more capable readers showed relatively high scores on the pretest, and, therefore, did not increase their scores by 20 points on the posttest. Despite many miscues several less proficient readers gave a rather extensive and in-depth retelling. Many of the children saw humor in the story, and some of them related certain aspects of the story to their experiences or to literature they had previously read. One child missed the word porridge each time it appeared in the text, and yet talked with understanding about porridge and the porridge pot on the retelling. Another reader was reminded of a similar story from literature about a churn and was able to derive a story structure from previous information. Two children gave a sketchy retelling with mostly isolated facts from the story. One of these children retold a story somewhat unrelated to the story read. Twenty-two of the children's retelling indicated that they understood a great deal of the story including setting, characterization, theme, and plot.

On the Reading Interview (Appendix H:62) given before the ten-week period, students generally focused on "sounding it out" or "knowing all the words." If they couldn't get the words right by sounding them out, many of them said that they would "ask for

help" or "wait for someone to tell them." A good reader was often perceived as someone who knew all of the words. Some more capable readers did not always verbalize holistic strategies that they, themselves, sometimes used while reading.

Student's responses on the Reading Interview given at the end of the ten-week period generally showed a shift in attitude from a subskills or skills model to a focus on reading for meaning. Typical responses were, "I'd figure it out," "I just keep reading," and "I guess and then go back." In response to questions 6 and 7 on the Interview Form the students indicated that readers who were having trouble reading should be encouraged to use the same strategies as they themselves, would use.

A good reader was usually perceived by the students as someone who read a lot of books, who practiced reading, but who sometimes made mistakes. Although some children did not show strong convictions in every area, all of them equated good reading with a focus on constructing meaning and making sense out of the story.

During the ten-week period, teachers conducted ongoing evaluation of the child's integration of the language cueing systems and independent reading strategies by routinely recording their observations of the child's oral reading. Miscue Analysis Procedure IV Individual Conference Form (Appendix I:64) was used

to tally semantically acceptable sentences from a selection. Teachers noted the quality of the presentation after each child's reading and retelling. Collected comments and anecdotes provided insight into the child's interaction with the text, and also helped the teacher determine effective instructional strategies for each child. The reading Conference Form provided necessary information to help teachers monitor the child's progress. For example, when it became evident that one SLD child was oversounding on every unknown word, the teacher helped the child develop strategies by substituting a word that made sense in context. Overall, the data revealed that students gained and made continuous progress in using independent strategies.

Results of home reading and parental involvement were measured in part by the parent's reaction to the orientation meeting. Information was shared that helped the parents get involved with their child's reading. Many parents expressed concern that their children were already labeled as failures. Parents understood that the teachers had high expectations for their children. Also the teachers encouraged the parents to have similar expectations. Occasionally a parent would write a note stating that the book the child brought home was too long or too difficult for the child, but none of the parents ever indicated that reading with the child at home was not of significant value.

After the children had checked out and read 50 books, the parents evaluated the program by completing a form (Appendix K:67). All of the parents responded that the children had made "Some Improvement" or "Much Improvement," with the exception of one father who answered "No Improvement" to Number 4. Because the child was one of the most proficient readers, the teachers questioned this response in a conference with the father. The father, who had limited English experience, explained that the child liked to read, but that he sometimes wanted to play or do something other than read a book. Many of the parents wrote personal notes and comments. One parent wrote, "...considering that she couldn't read at all at the first of the year, I think she has done exceptionally well." Another parent wrote, "Yes, my child has improved in every way, and I want to thank all of the teachers for their help."

To determine if students developed a positive attitude toward reading, documentation was kept for the number of times they independently choose to read books. Teachers reported that students often requested to check out more than one book to take home, and often checked out books from the library on a particular theme that the class was studying. Teachers also reported that if they asked a child to read part of a books to them, the child would often want to read the entire book. When

Week of _____
Month/days

Student	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Weekly Total
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						

Figure 1

Independent Selection of Books for In-school Reading

(Submitted Weekly by Each Chapter 1 Teacher)

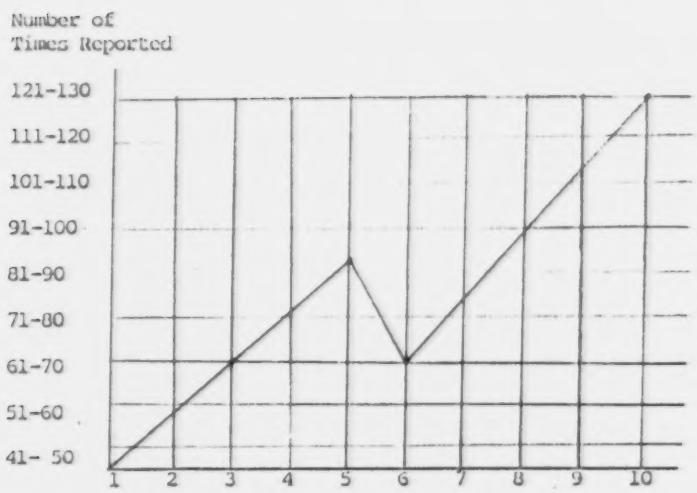

Figure 2

Independent Selection of Books for In-school Reading

(Analysis of Data for N = 24 Subjects)

given a choice of activities, many of the children would choose a book and frequently would ask the teacher/teachers to listen to their reading. At the end of the ten-week period many children wanted to continue reading and checking out books even after they had completed reading the required 50 books. Weekly tallies showed that the children's interest in reading continued steadily during the ten-week period, except for one decline during the middle of the implementation (Figure 2). It was concluded that the possible reason for the decline was due to rearranging of schedules and related interruptions to accomodate a school-wide standardized achievement-testing program.

CHAPTER V

Recommendations

The basic premise of this paper is that reading and writing develop as children experience language in its various expressions: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Written language (reading and writing) and oral language (speaking and writing) develop in concert with each other but also in analogous ways. Because reading and writing are language, the principles that direct the development of oral language also apply to written language. These language-learning principles should provide the basis for all evaluation and reading instruction. It is especially important that LD and remedial students engage in reading and writing themselves. They must also see reading and writing demonstrated by others in order to provide an effective literacy-learning environment. Teaching reading and writing as language focuses on how the children learn to read or write, on what they learn as they become readers and writers, and on how they use what they know about language in order to derive meaning during reading and writing. Together, an increase in reading speed and a decrease in semantically unacceptable miscues are good indicators that the student is viewing reading as language

and has become more fluent.

Each of the six objectives proposed for this paper was met within the noted limitations and expectations. The implementation of the respective methodologies was effected with the general instructional structure for the Chapter One pull-out program, with only small change in the flow of usual class management and instruction. No significant disruptions in the program were observed by any of the teachers involved. On the basis of the significant gains resulting from the attempts to meet each of the six objectives, the writer recommends that the methodology used for each objective be incorporated into the instructional procedures for the whole Chapter One Program.

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Appendix A

CHAPTER 1 SELECTION CRITERIA INFORMATION FORM

Student Name_____ Grade _____
Last First Middle
Student Identification Number _____ School_____

Special Services_____

Classroom Teacher's Signature_____ Date_____

I. Test Data

Site

____ Total Reading, Stanford Achievement Test (Grades 2-5)
____ Metropolitan Readiness Test (Grade 1)

II. Student Behavioral Characteristics (check those that apply)

Compared to the average student, this student:

Number of checks

____ 1. Reads poorly, haltingly, or not at all.
____ 2. Has difficulty reading content area materials (3-5).
____ 3. Has poor retention skills.
____ 4. Is easily frustrated.
____ 5. Is easily distracted.
____ 6. Has poor self-concept.
____ 7. Has little or no comprehension skills.
____ 8. Exhibits immature behavior.
____ 9. Lacks fine motor skills.
____ 10. Has poor reasoning ability.
____ 11. Does not understand the meaning of many commonly used words.
____ 12. Has weak phonetic skills.
____ 13. Cannot communicate ideas orally.
____ 14. Has difficulty expressing ideas in writing.
____ 15. Cannot work independently.
____ 16. Has difficulty following simple directions.

III. Current Student Record Data (check those that apply)

Number of checks

____ 1. Basal reading level:
____ one semester below grade level
____ one year or more below grade level
____ 2. Retained or administratively placed during any previous year or current year.
____ 3. Served by any Chapter 1 instructional program, during the current school year.
____ 4. Below acceptable levels in exit skills for current year.
____ 5. Preventive strategy for reading (K-3) or lower one-third of reading class (4-5).

IV. Teacher Recommendations

Check the number below which best indicates, in your professional judgement, the extent to which this student needs Chapter 1 service.

____ 1. This child reads well and requires little or no extra assistance.
____ 2. This child reads adequately with some extra assistance.
____ 3. This child reads with some difficulty and frequently requires extra assistance.
____ 4. This child reads poorly and regularly requires extra assistance.
____ 5. This child reads very poorly or not at all and always requires extra assistance.

OFFICE USE ONLY

Current Grade Level:_____ Decision: Yes_____ No_____ I._____

Reason:_____

Signature:_____ _____
Principal Teacher

_____ _____
Parent Chapter 1 Teacher

CHAPTER 1 BASIC - FORM #63

WHOLE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT CHECKLIST

Name _____ Grade _____ Teacher _____

	Usually	Sometimes	Not Yet	N/A
1. Demonstrates Growth in Oral Language Development				
Shows improvement in listening skills	☐	☐	☐	☐
Communicates orally with peers and adults	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shows growth in ability to use standard English	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Is Interested in Reading				
Is willing to read	☐	☐	☐	☐
Appears to enjoy reading	☐	☐	☐	☐
Chooses books for independent reading	☐	☐	☐	☐
Chooses books at appropriate level of difficulty	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reads a variety of genre	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Develops Reading Strategies				
Uses context clues	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses prior knowledge	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses sentence structure	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses structural analysis	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses phonic analysis	☐	☐	☐	☐
Notices miscues that interfere with meaning	☐	☐	☐	☐
Infers words in cloze activities	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is willing to take risks as reader (guesses at meaning)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Can summarize major events	☐	☐	☐	☐
Can sequence events	☐	☐	☐	☐
Predicts and reads to confirm	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has adequate attention span for reading	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Is Interested in Writing				
Completes written assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐
Communicates ideas in writing at appropriate level	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writes for own purposes	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shows pride/enjoyment in writing	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Demonstrates Growth in Writing				
Grammar and usage show improvement	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writing vocabulary shows growth	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shows improvement in communication of ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writing fluency and style show growth	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is willing to edit and rewrite	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writes on regular basis	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX B

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Appendix C

Blank Forms

Name _____

Date _____ Grade/Age _____

Teacher _____

Reference _____

THE MAN WHO KEPT HOUSE

0101 Once upon a time there was a woodman
0102 who thought that no one worked as hard as
0103 he did. One evening when he came home
0104 from work, he said to his wife, "What do you
0105 do all day while I am away cutting wood?"
0106 "I keep house," replied the wife, "and
0107 keeping house is hard work."
0108 "Hard work!" said the husband. "You don't
0109 know what hard work is! You should try
0110 cutting wood!"
0111 "I'd be glad to," said the wife.
0112 "Why don't you do my work some day? I'll
0113 stay home and keep house," said the woodman.
0114 "If you stay home to do my work, you'll
0115 have to make butter, carry water from the
0116 well, wash the clothes, clean the house, and
0117 look after the baby," said the wife.

Appendix C

Blank Forms

0118 "I can do all that," replied the husband.

0119 "We'll do it tomorrow!"

0201 So the next morning the wife went off to

0202 the forest. The husband stayed home and

0203 began to do his wife's work.

0204 He began to make some butter. As he put

0205 the cream into the churn, he said, "This is

0206 not going to be hard work. All I have to do

0207 is sit here and move this stick up and down.

0208 Soon the cream will turn into butter."

0209 Just then the woodman heard the baby

0210 crying. He looked around, but he could not

0211 see her. She was not in the house. Quickly,

0212 he ran outside to look for her. He found the

0213 baby at the far end of the garden and

0214 brought her back to the house.

0301 In his hurry, the woodman had left the

0302 door open behind him. When he got back to

0303 the house, he saw a big pig inside with its

0304 nose in the churn. "Get out! Get out!"

0305 shouted the woodman at the top of his voice.

0306 The big pig ran around and around the

Appendix C

Blank Forms

room. It bumped into the churn, knocking it over. The cream splashed all over the room. Out the door went the pig.

"Now I've got more work to do," said the man. "I'll have to wash everything in this room. Perhaps keeping house is harder work than I thought." He took a bucket and went to the well for some water. When he came back, the baby was crying.

"Poor baby, you must be hungry," said the woodman. "I'll make some porridge for you. I'll light a fire in the fireplace, and the porridge will be ready in a few minutes."

Just as the husband was putting the water into the big pot, he heard the cow

---

mooing outside the door. "I guess the cow is hungry, too," he thought. "No one has given her any grass to eat or any water to drink today."

The man left the porridge to cook on the fire and hurried outside. He gave the cow some water.

Appendix C

Blank Forms

0408 "I haven't time to find any grass for you

0409 now," he said to the cow. "I'll put you up

0410 on the roof. You'll find something to eat

0411 up there."

0412 The man put the cow on top of the house.

0413 Then he was afraid that she would fall off

0414 the roof and hurt herself. So he put one

0415 end of a rope around the cow's neck. He

0416 dropped the other end down the chimney.

0501 Then he climbed down from the roof and

0502 went into the house. He pulled the end of the

0503 rope out of the fireplace and put it around

0504 his left leg.

0505 "Now I can finish making this porridge,"

0506 said the woodman, "and the cow will

0507 be safe."

0508 But the man spoke too soon, for just then

0509 the cow fell off the roof. She pulled him up

0510 the chimney by the rope. There he hung,

0511 upside down over the poridge pot. As for the

0512 cow, she hung between the roof and the

0513 ground, and there she had to stay.

Appendix C

Blank Forms

0514 It was not very long before woodman's
0515 wife came home. As she came near the
0516 house, she could hear the cow mooing, the

0601 baby crying, and her husband shouting for
0602 help. She hurried up the path. She cut the
0603 rope from the cow's neck. As she did so,
0604 the cow fell down to the ground, and the
0605 husband dropped head first down the chimney.
0606 When the wife went into the house, she
0607 saw her husband with his legs up the
0608 chimney and his head in the porridge pot.
0609 From that day on, the husband went into
0610 the forest every day to cut wood. The wife
0611 stayed home to keep house and to look
0612 after their child.
0613 Never again did the woodman say to his
0614 wife, "What did you do all day?" Never
0615 again did he tell his wife that he would
0616 stay home and keep house.

MISCUE ANALYSIS PROCEDURE I CODING FORM

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READER ____ DATE ____

TEACHER ____ AGE/GRADE ____ SCHOOL ____

SELECTION ____

LINE No./MISCUE No.	READER	TEXT	1 SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	2 SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	3 MEANING CHANGE	4 CORRECTION	See 2, 3, 4 MEANING CONSTRUCTION: No Loss	Partial Loss	Loss	See 1, 2, 4 GRAMMATICAL RELATIONSHIPS: Strength	Partial Strength	Overcorrection	Weakness	5 GRAPHIC SIMILARITY: H	S	N	6 SOUND SIMILARITY: H	S	N
a. TOTAL MISCUES ____			COLUMN TOTAL																
b. TOTAL WORDS ____			PATTERN TOTAL																
a ÷ b × 100 = MPHW ____			PERCENTAGE																

(Goodman, Watson, Burke)

MISCUE ANALYSIS PROCEDURE II CODING FORM

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LANGUAGE SENSE							
SENTENCE NO.	No. MISCUES IN SENTENCE	1 SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	2 SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	3 MEANING CHANGE	PATTERN (See 1,2,3) Strength YYN	Partial Strength YYY YYP	Weakness NN_ YN_
		COLUMN TOTAL					
		PATTERN TOTAL					
		PERCENTAGE					

READER			DATE
TEACHER	AGE/ GRADE		SCHOOL
SELECTION			

WORD SUBSTITUTION IN CONTEXT

SENTENCE No.	MISCUE NO.	READER Dialect ⓓ	TEXT	4 GRAPHIC H	S	N	5 SOUND H	S	N
a. TOTAL MISCUES ___			COLUMN TOTAL						
b. TOTAL WORDS ___			TOTAL MISCUES						
a ÷ b × 100 = MPHW ___			PERCENTAGE						

(Goodman, Watson, Burke)

MISCUE ANALYSIS PROCEDURE II READER PROFILE

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	%	%
LANGUAGE SENSE		
Strength		
Partial Strength		
Weakness		
GRAPHIC/SOUND RELATIONS		
Graphic		
High		
Some		
None		
Sound		
High		
Some		
None		
RETELLING		
Holistic Score		
or Comments		

MPHW ____ TIME ____

READER DATE

TEACHER AGE/GRADE SCHOOL

SELECTION

REPEATED MISCUES ACROSS TEXT

LINE	READER	TEXT	COMMENTS (place in text, correction, etc.)

COMMENTS

(Goodman, Watson, Burke)

Appendix G

Blank Forms

Reader: _____ Date: _____

Retelling Guide: Procedure I

The Man Who Kept House

Character Analysis:
(40 points)

Recall (20 points)
9 – Man (husband)
9 – Woman (wife)
2 – Baby

Development (20 points)
Husband
2 – Woodman
3 – Thought he worked very hard
5 – Changed attitude over time
Housewife
5 – Worked Hard
5 – Accepted challenges

Events:
(60 points)

Woodman thinks he works very hard. He comes home and asks his wife what she does all day. Wife responds that she keeps house and keeping house is hard work. (10 points) ____

The husband challenges the wife to change places. The wife agrees and tells husband what he has to do. The husband says they will change places the next day. (10 points) ____

The wife goes off to the forest and the husband stays home. (5 points) ____

The husband is involved in a number of events that cause problems: (15 points) ____

Butter making.

Baby cries and woodman goes to find her. He leaves the door open.

Pig gets into the house, the woodman chases it and the pig spills the cream.

Woodman starts to clean up the mess.

The baby cries again and the woodman prepares to feed the baby.

The cow's mooing interrupts the woodman who realizes that the cow needs to be fed. He puts the cow on the roof to feed. He is afraid the cow might fall off the roof so he throws the rope from the cow's neck down the chimney. When he gets into the house he ties the rope to his own leg.

As he thinks again about the porridge, the cow falls off the roof pulling the woodman up the chimney. Cow and woodman are hanging, one in the house and one outside.

As the wife returns home she hears the commotion. She cuts the cow down and then finds her husband upside down with his head in the porridge pot. (10 points) ____

Every day after that the husband goes to his work and the wife to hers. The husband never again asks the wife what she does every day nor says he will do her work. (10 points) ____

Appendix H

Blank Forms

READING INTERVIEW

Name _____ Age _____ Date _____

Occupation _____ Educational Level _____

Sex _____ Interview Setting _____

1. When you are reading and come to something you don't know, what do you do?

   Do you ever do anything else?

2. Who is a good reader you know?

3. What makes _____ a good reader?

4. Do you think _____ ever comes to something she/he doesn't know?

5. "Yes" When _____ does come to something she/he doesn't know, what do you think he/she does?

Appendix H

Blank Forms

"No" Suppose _____ comes to something she/he doesn't know. What do you think she/he would do?

6. If you knew someone was having trouble reading how would you help that person?

7. What would a/your teacher do to help that person?

8. How did you learn to read?

9. What would you like to do better as a reader?

10. Do you think you are a good reader? Why?

Appendix I

MISCUE ANALYSIS PROCEDURE IV INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE FORM

READER _____ DATE _____

TEACHER _____ AGE/GRADE _____

SELECTION _____

Does the sentence, as the reader left it, make sense within the context of the story?

Yes _____ Total _____

No _____ Total _____

Number of Sentences _____ Comprehending Score _____

Divide total Yes by Total number of sentences for Comprehending Score

Retelling Information

Comments

(Goodman, Watson, Burke)

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Appendix J

INITIAL PARENT INVOLVEMENT FORM

Child's Name _____

1. When given a choice of reading a book or another acitivity, the child will
   ____never choose reading.
   ____sometimes choose reading.
   ____frequently choose reading.
   ____always choose reading.

2. When _____ is reading and comes to something he/she does not know, what does he/she do?
   ____Guesses at the word and continues reading.
   ____Skips the word and then comes back to it.
   ____Substitutes a word that would make sense in the sentence.
   ____Corrects his/her mistakes that don't make sense.
   ____Tries to sound out every unknown word.
   ____Asks for help or waits for someone to help with unknown words.

3. Which statements best describe your child's attitude toward reading?
   ____I am not afraid to make mistakes and try again.
   ____I want to know all of the words before I try to read anything.
   ____I know that reading must make sense.
   ____I know my parents and teachers want me to be a successful reader.

Appendix J

____I understand that there is more than one way to figure out a word that I do not know.

____I believe that practice will make me a better reader.

PAPRENT'S SIGNATURE_____

Appendix K

Final Parent Involvement Form

May 23, 1990

Dear Parents, on Wednesday, May 30, we are having a breakfast to celebrate your child's success in our "Nifty Fifty" reading program. Through the use of predictable books, we have worked very closely with the classroom teacher to help your child become a confident and successful reader, but most of all, we have tried to instill a love for reading that will last a lifetime.

Chapter 1 Basic

(Teacher's Signatures)

SEVERAL MONTHS AGO WE ASKED YOU TO COMPLETE A FORM BY ANSWERING SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR CHILD'S READING BEHAVIOR AT HOME. NOW WE NEED YOUR HELP AGAIN! WE'D APPRECIATE IT IF YOU WOULD CIRCLE THE ANSWER BELOW EACH SENTENCE THAT BEST TELLS ABOUT YOUR CHILD'S READING SINCE THAT TIME.

1. The child reads for meaning and understands that written and spoken language must make sense.

   Much Improvement Some Improvement No Improvement

2. When the child is reading and comes to an unknown word, he/she guesses or skips the word and then comes back to it and tries to figure it out before asking for help.

   Much Improvement Some Improvement No Improvement

Appendix K

3. The child has an interest in reading, has favorite books, talks about the story and other features of the book.

   Much Improvement Some Improvements No improvements

4. The child practices reading to become a good reader.

   Much Improvements Some Improvements No Improvements

OTHER COMMENTS_____

_____

_____

_____

CHILD'S NAME_____

PARENT'S SIGNATURE_____

Annotated Bibliography

Predictable Books with LD and Remedial Students

Bridge, Connie. "Predictable Materials for Beginning Readers." Language Arts. May, 1979, pp.503-507.

This article points out the value of using easy and meaningful (predictable) material during initial reading instruction. It provides the opportunity for the beginning reader to process print in the same way as the mature reader by predicting, sampling, and confirming from the first. Mature reading occurs when the reader uses all three cueing systems interactively.

Bridge, Connie A., Peter N. Winograd, and Darliene Haley. "Using Predictable Materials Vs. Preprimers to Teach Beginning Sight Words." The Reading Teacher. May, 1983, pp.884-891.

This article describes a study, with low-achieving first-graders, which show that sight words are better learned in the context of repetitive "predictable" books and from the language experience approach than from typical preprimers. Children in the experimental group who used predictable materials showed significant gains over the control group in the areas of sight vocabulary, ability to use context clues, and the use of flexible strategies for dealing with an unfamiliar word in context.

Chang, Ye-Ling and Dorothy J. Watson. "Adaptation of Prediction Strategies and Materials in a Chinese/English Bilingual Classroom." The Reading Teacher. October, 1988, pp.36-43.

This article investigates the effects of prediction strategies and predictable materials in teaching ethnic Chinese children in the U.S. to read in Chinese. Predictable materials were used to encourage children to use natural language to sample from the whole environment of available cues in reading, and to help them become proficient, independent readers. Results of the data showed that the use of predictable materials and the use of prediction strategies resulted in good responses by the beginning Chinese readers.

Cullinan, Bernice E. "Latching on to Literature." School Library Journal. April, 1989, pp.27-31.

This article states that children learn to read by actually reading, that reading is a part of language learning, and that learning in any one area of language helps learning in other areas. Numerous literature-based programs throughout the country are described. Children need unlimited opportunities to read suitable material that supports the desire to read. When children are surrounded with meaningful use of all forms of language they learn it more quickly and make it work for them.

Herald-Taylor, Gail. "How to Use Predictable Books for K-2 Language Arts Instruction." The reading Teacher. March, 1987, pp.656-661.

This article points out the importance of literature in any language arts program. Literature introduces children to descriptive language and a sense of story, which sparks their imagination and motivates them to read and write. Repeated shared readings, turning the text into big books, and various interpretative activities can give even the young child a command of the text. Children learn to read naturally through a language arts program based on literature.

Hollingsworth, Paul M. and D. Ray Reutzel. "Whole Language With LD Children." Academic Therapy. May, 1988, pp.477-488.

This article points out the importance of using the Whole Language Theory to improve the reading and writing of language-learning disabled children. Characteristics that are necessary for creating a whole language learning environment and instructional practices consistent with whole language theory, are outlined and discussed. Predictable story books are excellent for use with remedial or learning-disabled children.

Jacobs, Leland. "The Allure of Predictability." Teaching K-8. October, 1989, pp.37-41.

This article states that predictable books are considered essential in children's learning about the reading process and in

selecting what to read. Ways to think about prediction in reading include anticipation, the child's interests, and past experience with an author's choice of content. Story types also provide the reader with a kind of predictability.

Kleiuss, Janell. "What is Whole Language?" Florida Reading Quarerly. December, 1988, pp.17-22.

This article explains the philosophical beliefs of whole language and describes instructional activities which adhere to that philosophy. Reading and writing should draw some parallels with the way speaking and listening are naturally developed by children. Reading predictable stories over again is one key to a successful whole language program.

McClure, Ann. "Predictable Books: Another Way to Teach Reading to Learning Disabled Children." Teaching Exceptional Children. Summer, 1985, pp.267-273.

This article states that using children's literature that is written in a "predictable format" can be an effective resource for teaching reading with individuals and groups of learning-disabled students. Books that are written in a repetitive, rhythmical, cumulative pattern make it easy for children to predict what will be on the page. All children, including those who are learning-disabled, assimilate new learning if it makes sense to them.

Pickering, C. Thomas. "Whole Language: A New Signal for Expanding Literacy." Reading Improvement. Summer, 1989, pp.144-149.

This article points out that "whole language" is a relatively new term for literacy instruction that emphasizes application of reading and writing in meaningful contexts. Language skills develop holistically when children have something to read, write, and think about. Prediction is an important part of reading; and absolute accuracy in word recognition is not essential, provided the message conveyed by the text is not distorted.

Rhodes, Lynn and Curt Dudley-Marlin. Readers and Writers With A Difference: A Holistic Approach to Teaching Learning Disabled and Remedial Students. Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1988.

This book presents a holistic perspective on reading and writing instruction with remedial and learning-disabled students. One chapter on environments for literacy development presents numerous ideas for increasing children's involvement with print and for designing environments that are meaningful, relevant, and purposeful. Several instructional strategies, including predictable books, have been found to be successful in encouraging literacy development.

Rhodes, Lynn. "I Can Read! Predictable Books as Resources for Reading and Writing Instruction." The Reading Teacher. May, 1981, pp.511-518.

This article describes several characteristics of "predictable" books and the various uses with beginning and

remedial readers. The language of "predictable" books flows naturally, and children use their knowledge of the world and language in responding to the story. Strategies for developing word recognition can be accomplished during a child's reading, rather than before reading.

Tompkins, Gail E., and MaryBeth Webeler. "What Will Happen Next? Using Predictable Books With Young Children." The Reading Teacher. February, 1983, pp.498-502.

This article outlines a technique for using books with predictable content with beginning readers and emphasizes the significant role that prediction plays in comprehension. Proficient readers use the prediction cycle (sampling, predicting, and confirming) to comprehend what they have read. Beginning readers can also learn to use the three-step cycle to help them become efficient and independent readers.

Tunnell, Michael O., and James S. Jacobs. "Using "Real" Books: Research Findings on Literature Based Reading Instruction." The Reading Teacher. March, 1989, pp.470-477.

This article describes a selection of studies on the success of the literature-based approach to literacy with many types of students, particularly with disabled and "stalled" readers. The natural texts of "real" books supports reading as a meaningful activity. Good readers tended to define reading as being concerned with meaning while poor readers saw it as a process of converting symbol to sound.